

# **A Comparative Study of Employees Motivational Components in Private & PUBLIC ORGANIZATIONS**

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**By  
ALKA KAPOOR**

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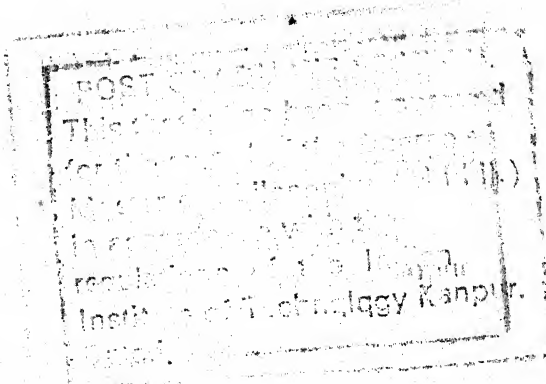
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submitted by Mrs. Alka Kapoor (En. No.910001)  
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research work carried out by her under my  
guidance.

KANPUR:

*O.P. Tayal*  
(O.P. Tayal)

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## CONTENTS

			<u>Page</u>
LIST OF TABLES	...	...	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	...	...	vii
PREFACE	...	...	P.I
<b>CHAPTER 1: PROBLEM OF MOTIVATION IN INDUSTRY</b>			
A. A Historical Overview....			1
B. Job Satisfaction and Motivation: some misconceptions. ...			3
C. The Classical Viewpoint on Motivation ...			5
D. Present Status ...			6
REFERENCES	...	...	8
<b>CHAPTER 2: MOTIVATION IN ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT: BROAD THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES</b>			
A. Job Satisfaction and Performance			10
B. Herzberg's Thesis ....			11
C. The Rational Model ....			17
D. Vroom's Model ...			18
E. Further Modifications:			
(i) Graen's Expectancy Theory ...			22
(ii) Porter and Lawler Modifications .			23
(iii) A composite Picture of the VIE theory ...			24
F. Supplementary Models: Goal- Setting Hypothesis ...			25
G. Some Relevant Findings under the Rational Models: ...			26
H. Equity Theory ...			28
I. Behaviour Modification Theories			31
REFERENCES	...	...	33

**CHAPTER 3: MARGINAL UTILITY THEORY OF INPUTS**

	<u>Page</u>
A. Exchange Principle ...	37
B. The Proposed Paradigm vis-a-vis the Motivational Theories ...	38
C. The Marginal Utility Frame vis-a-vis Vroom's Model ...	40
D. Implications of the Proposed Frame for our Management Policies ...	41

REFERENCES ...	44
----------------	----

CHAPTER 4: STUDY PLAN ...	45
---------------------------	----

**CHAPTER 5: SAMPLING DATA AND COMPUTATIONS:**

A. Sampling and Data ...	50
B. Hypothesis and Computations ...	51

**CHAPTER 6: FINDINGS OF THE STUDY:**

A. Performance level of the two Samples ...	66
B. The Content Character of Job Elements and its relationship with performance ...	68
C. Personal Value Factors ...	69
D. Motivators ...	72
E. Perceived Effectiveness of Certain Satisfiers to promote productivity ...	77
F. Respondents' Percept about the Effectiveness of Certain Job Elements to act as incentives ...	79
G. Summary of Findings ...	81

REFERENCES ...	84
----------------	----

CHAPTER 7: IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS FOR THE MANAGEMENT POLICIES ...	85
--	----

CHAPTER 8:	EPILOGUE: THE INDIAN WORKERS AND HIS EFFICIENCY	...	...	88
------------	--	-----	-----	----

APPENDIX - A.

WORKERS MOTIVATION ANALYSIS SCALE	...	...	...	93
--------------------------------------	-----	-----	-----	----

LIST OF TABLES

	<u>PAGE</u>
1. Means and Variances of the Bank Group of Employees ... ..	54
2. Means and Variances of the J.K. Group of Employees... ..	55
3. 't' Values ... ..	59
4. Correlations between the items and performance of Bank Group of employees	60
5. Correlation between the items and performance of J.K. Group of Employees	61
6. Ranking of the factors listed in Section "E" by the Bank Group of employees	62
7. Ranking of the factors listed in Section "E" by the J.K. Group of Employees ... ..	63
8. Ranking of the factors listed in Section "F" by the Bank Group of Employees ... ..	64
9. Ranking of the factors listed in Section "F" by the J.K. Group of Employees. ... ..	65

....

LIST OF FIGURES

PAGE

FIGURE:

1. The Registered (Perceived) content  
Character of Section "B" Job Elements  
in the two establishments.                   ...                   ... 56
  
2. The Registered (Perceived) content  
Character of Section "C" Job Elements  
in the two establishments.                   ...                   ... 57
  
3. The anticipated effectiveness of Section "D"  
Job Elements under their content  
Complexion                   ...                   ... 58

## P R E F A C E

This study assumes that the productivity of the employees remains higher in private organizations as compared to their counterparts in similar positions in the Government or public organizations. This difference is usually ascribed to closer supervision in the private sector. Closer supervision is usually annoying and as such it could not be an effective motivator by itself. The author, therefore, seeks an analysis of the problem in a somewhat different frame. She holds that the quantum of inputs which an employee may render to his organization would very much depend upon the nature of outcomes which may follow as a consequence of those inputs. The employee, therefore, in his work situation would be conceived to be placed in a choice situation, in which progressively increasing amount of inputs from his side would yield *quantitatively* quantitatively different returns. Under that situation, commonsense suggests, that out of the possible alternatives available, individual choice should fall in that direction which may optimize his returns. Or that, the problem of motivation of workers in an organizational set-up should rather be examined under a decision making paradigm.



Under the proposed frame, an incumbent would augment his inputs if by doing so he could hope to promote his overall psychological gains (subjective satisfaction) derived from the anticipated outcomes. This is only possible when the desired outcomes have a content character, that is, their availability is contingent upon work performance. The author, therefore, believes that the basis of difference between the productivity of the employees in the private and public enterprises should lie in the content character of job elements (anticipated outcomes). This dissertation seeks to verify this hunch (belief).

The first chapter of this dissertation gives a brief historical over-view of the landmarks in the study of motivation of the employees in an organizational set up. The second chapter discusses the various theoretical frames which have been employed to offer a conceptual<sup>u</sup> analysis of the problem during the last two decades.

The third chapter presents a theoretical frame under the exchange principle to offer a rational description of that quantum of inputs which an employee would render to his organization to optimize his gains. It conceives that the amount of energy and attention which a person could deploy to meet his various role obligations can be

treated as analogous to the amount of money available with an individual to meet his different economic demands. Extending the analogy further, it proposes that just as we try to explain the pattern of distribution of expenditure in economics under the marginal utility theory of money to cope with various competing economic needs, we could also envisage that the investment of energy and attention at one's disposal follows the same principle to cope with various competing physical and psychological needs whose satisfaction he seeks.

The fourth chapter describes the broad outlines of this study which seeks to compare the content character of the job elements in the private and the public sector.

The fifth chapter discusses the instrument used and the data collected under the study. The sixth chapter interprets those data and discusses their implications.

The seventh chapter examines the implications of these findings for our management policies which would tempt the work force to be more productive. The eighth chapter summarises the findings.

The basic objective of this dissertation is to identify those job elements which differ in their content character in the private and public organizations, and to demonstrate that such elements could fall both amongst

deficiency and abundance motives and not simply within the domain of positive satisfiers (abundance motives) as Herzberg would like us to believe. The study is carried under the hope that may be, the findings would provide some meaningful guidelines <sup>to</sup> for our management ~~policies~~ in the public sector towards improving their *organizational* efficiency.

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## CHAPTER I

### PROBLEM OF MOTIVATION IN INDUSTRY

#### A. A Historical Overview:

"We have been very much occupied", wrote Dupin as early as 1829, "in perfecting the machines and the tools which he uses in the economic arts, we have hardly attempted to improve the worker himself." Despite such early emphasis on the human factor in industry, so dominant had been the regard for the machines that little attention was given to the worker as such, on whom lay the responsibility of designing, operating, and caring for those machines right up to the end of the 19th century. With the turn of the century, however, there has been a growing realization that the stability of enterprises depends no less upon their psychological foundations than upon the solidity of economic and technical supports. This realization was particularly brought home by the pioneering works of Frederic W. Taylor on Shop Management, who demonstrated that the output of industrial establishments could be increased by 2 to 2½ times as much by adapting scientific management practices and with the introduction of rationalization in industry. (Taylor, 1911a, 1911b, Gilbreth, 1911).

Though the early scientific management practices recognised the complexities of the problem of motivation, they preferred to assume that "what the workmen want from their employers beyond anything else is high wages, and what the employers want from their workmen, is a low labour cost of manufacture. (T<sup>o</sup>ylor, 1911). Such an assumption was perhaps not altogether unjustified in the then existing semi-feudal socio-psycho climate, in which, a worker was not that conscious of his other equally prominent social and psychological needs besides the physical, as he is today.

The attention to the problem of motivation, in a way, was drawn in right earnest by the findings of Hawthorne studies carried out at the Philadelphia plant of the Western Electric Supply Company. The investigators in this study at the outset were not as much interested in the study of the problems of motivation as such as in the optimization of work conditions to improve efficiency. Surprisingly, during the course of their investigations, they discovered that in many instances, no matter what kind of changes they introduced, the productivity showed an upward trend, so much so, that it continued to increase even under some obviously adverse conditions. (Mayo, 1933).



Those findings brought the problem of motivation of the employees to the fore in the organization<sup>al</sup> context, and made it evident that the attitudes of the workers influenced their outputs in the work situation as much as any other variable taken into consideration under rationalization till then. These findings thus set a pace for a systematic study of the motivation of workers in an organizational set up.

B. Job Satisfaction and Motivation:

Some Misconceptions:

The early Hawthorne findings led to an erroneous assumption that the more favourable attitudes a worker may have towards his work situation and his management, the more strongly he would be committed to his work role obligations. This assumption immediately gave a phillip to the human relations problem in industry. It generated a new interest towards identifying those factors in the work situation which would influence the attitudes of the workers favourably towards their work roles. Attempts were also made to determine the relative importance of each of the factors so identified. (Herzberg, & Mausner & Peterson, 1957). Some of the factors which have been found to be relevant in affecting overall job satisfaction, are security, opportunity for advancement, company and management, wages, intrinsic aspects of the job, supervision,

Social aspects of the job, communication, working conditions benefits, and the like.

Under the human relations approach, the worker began to be looked upon as the most important part of an organization (Odiome, 1962; Argyris, 1953). However, it was soon discovered that the improved morale of the worker was not necessarily accompanied by increased efficiency, (March & Simon, 1958; Scott, 1962) as anticipated. In fact, a closer look into the problem brought out that there was hardly any discernible relationship between the workers' overall job satisfaction and their productivity. The morale of the workers could be low yet their productivity could be high. (Carey, 1967; Katz, 1949). Similarly, the morale could be high, and yet the productivity could be low (Habbe, 1947).

These findings had the effect of delinking the problem of motivation of the workers from their job satisfaction. It began to be registered that though the problem of the job satisfaction of the employees is certainly important for the management for many other reasons, it does not necessarily have a direct bearing on their productivity. The two issues need independent examinations under different theoretical frames.

In the early stages, the set of studies having some bearing on the motivation of workers were mostly

co-relational in nature. They were directed to discover to what extent some identifiable personality or the environmental variable in the work situation was related with the efficiency on the job. (Houser, 1927; Kornhouser, 1930). Such fact finding studies, however, failed to offer a proper conceptual analysis of the problem.

C. The Classical viewpoint on motivation:

In the early phases of industrial psychology, the problem of motivation was viewed under some highly simplistic frames. According to the realist, man works because by doing so alone can he feed himself and his family and provide for other wants. Under this view, he works because he is paid for it; and the amount of work he will do, and the satisfaction he derives from it, will depend upon the amount of pay he receives; that is upon the attractiveness of financial incentives. Taylor's early assumptions very much reflects this line of thinking. On the other extreme, the idealists' viewpoint maintained that man works because of some inner urge that compels him to contribute his share as a member of the working society of men. (Veblen, 1914; Trotter and Tead, 1918), or that he is attracted towards his work because of his some inner creative instinct. (Miles, 1929; Patten, 1917).

It is obvious that each of the above two classical interpretations present rather a too simplistic



version of the complexities of the problem of motivation in the organizational context. It may be wrong to assume that an organism's voluntary behaviour is triggered off blindly by some internal need or needs alone. He is perhaps capable of taking a stock of the situation and choose that alternative in a choice situation which may maximise his foreseeable psychological gains. The author, therefore, endorses the view that it is the content character of the job elements leading to the desired outcomes which prompts the workers to invest their energy and attention in the work situation. This point is elaborated in greater detail in chapter three of this dissertation.

D. Present Status:

The problem of motivation in an organizational set up still continues to belie a satisfactory explanation. The findings of 1950's that promoting job satisfaction, or an emphasis on human relations alone did not increase overall productivity led to a re-thinking on the problem. The first attempt to explain that anomaly was made by Herzberg (1966) who preferred to offer his analysis under the frame of deficiency and abundance motives. His theory, however, has many pitfalls and now stands almost rejected.

A more meaningful analysis has been offered by Vroom (1964) under the valence-expectancy hypothesis. He views the problem of motivation basically as a problem of choice out of the different possible alternatives available to him to choose from. Vroom's model has been further modified by later investigators who have preferred to introduce further sophistications in it. For example, Porter & Lawler (1968) make a distinction between the apparently direct first level anticipated outcomes, and the need based second level outcomes. Though the models proposed by later investigators look very attractive, it is doubtful if such sophistications could be reliably assessed, or meaningfully analysed in the real life situations.

Motivational psychologists on the other hand still continue to examine the problem under such needs as need for achievement, competence, or effectance etc. Their main weakness is that they view the problem from the standpoint of the inner needs of the worker only, and ignore the organizational climate in which the incumbent may have to operate.

The learning theorists tend to explain the efforts put in the work situation in terms of habit strength or on the basis of earlier operant conditioning. <sup>They unlike</sup> ~~or like~~

motivational psychologist, ~~who~~ do not consider it necessary to posit some intermediary variable defined in terms of some acquired need between the past learning and the present behavioural outcome in a certain defined situation. This study showed that there may be some substance in the behaviourist viewpoint.

Some of the prominent theoretical frames which figure in the current psychological literature, are discussed in detail in the next chapter.

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## CHAPTER TWO

### MOTIVATION IN ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT BROAD THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

#### A. Job Satisfaction and Performance:

The bane of psychological literature is that we do not have unified paradigms to account for the same set of related events studied under different boundry conditions. Each investigator who happens to study some particular aspect of the phenomenon under some specified conditions usually attempts to interpret his findings in that narrow domain only under his own theoretical frames and his own improvised concepts. In doing so, little attention is paid to bring out the similarities and differences of that frame with those already existing in the literature. The net result of this trend has been that we come across a large array of theories and formulations accounting for the outcomes of the same phenomenon under different conditions. This is equally true of the problem of motivation of the employees in the organizational context.

As already mentioned in the last chapter, classical psychology attempted to explain the problem in terms of some inner needs (Veblen, 1914; Tead, 1918; Trotter, 1919). Such explanations, however, in substance remain tautological; they do not add much to our knowledge.

The current empirical slant in psychology, however, views the problem rather differently. It attempts to



*identify* those elements in the situation with which the performance on the outcome side is correlated. In this context, one of the earliest hunches was that the work performance of the workers should be directly related with their work attitudes.

However, this commonsense belief, is not supported by experimental evidence. (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955; Gadel and Kriedt, 1952; Brayfield and Marsh, 1953;)

Job satisfaction as a determiner of performance has also come under a cloud under the attributive theory. For many years it was believed that attitudes were the antecedents, and therefore the causes of behaviour. However the research and debates resulting from Festinger's dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) have changed that interpretation. It is argued now that people observe their actions, and infer their attitudes from those observations. What were once considered as causative factors are now described as effects. According to the self perception theory, when people are asked about their job satisfaction, they would say, "Well, I come to work all the time, I must like my job." Thus attending work is seen as the causes of satisfaction and not the other way round.

#### B. Herzberg's Thesis:

Despite the fact, that no significant correspondenc between job satisfaction and performance is discovered, it

has been rather difficult to reconcile with these findings. One of the early attempts to explain this anomaly has been made by Herzberg under his 'Motivation Hygiene Theory'.

Herzberg with a view to identify the factors defining job satisfaction instead of employing conventional instruments of attitude measurement used a somewhat different technique. He asked his subjects who were drawn both from the white<sup>and</sup> the blue collared employees, (Herzberg, 1959) to recall those instances in their professional career which may have been somewhat unusually satisfying or dissatisfying. His data revealed that those instances recalled by his respondents which had made them feel unusually happy mostly related to some special recognition, achievement, advancement, or enhancement of responsibility; whereas those instances which were registered by them as specially annoying or dissatisfying were found to be associated with such factors as unsatisfying company policy and administration, poor supervision, low wages, disappointing work conditions, and the like.

Since, the responses of his subjects referred to a different set of factors in the two sets, Herzberg proposed that the psychological feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction should be conceived to be structurally different, that is, dissatisfaction was not simply a case of negative satisfaction.

In relating the psychological feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with work performance, Herzberg has further proposed that the dissatisfiers which were designated by him as hygiene factors could not be effective motivators. A perceived deficiency on these counts would certainly be annoying but this annoyance would not prompt the workers to augment their inputs in the work situation. The effective motivators according to him, could only be positive satisfiers which have the character of abundance motives (Krech, 1962) like recognition, responsibility, advancement, etc.

Herzberg's thesis does explain the anomaly of lack of correspondence between overall job satisfaction and the accompanying performance. In a situation where both the positive satisfiers, and dissatisfiers may be prominent, the workers would remain dissatisfied, yet they would work with commitment under the force of abundance motives. Conversely, in a situation in which the hygiene factors are well taken care of the workers would feel satisfied yet they may not put in proper efforts if the positive satisfiers did not occupy a prominent place in the organizational set-up.

Though the Herzberg's thesis seems to offer a plausible answer to the problem of lack of correspondence between job satisfaction and performance, a closer analysis brings out that it is faulty in major respects. (House &



Wigdor, 1967). In the first instance, there is little rationale in assuming that satisfaction and dissatisfaction may be conceived to form parts of different continua. Though the factor composition of the two psychological feelings as described by Herzberg remains different, this difference seems to be rather superficial. In case if Herzberg were to probe deeper to discover the underlying motivational dimensions which figured in the instances of dissatisfaction, he would have perhaps discovered no basic difference in the set of elements producing satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Poor supervision, or inequitable management policies could not be satisfying or annoying per se, unless they were indirectly promoting or blocking some underlying needs. Under the defences employed by people, as suggested by Vroom (1964) dissatisfaction felt on account of lack of recognition, or poor opportunities for advancement including demotion may not be overtly admitted as <sup>such</sup> much but is rather likely to be ascribed to the failings in the management or to some other environmental factors. May be, when the underlying motivational dimensions are examined in the cases of satisfaction and dissatisfaction both of them may be found to be directly related with our ego and social needs. The deficiency registered on these dimensions would produce negative satisfaction (dissatisfaction) whereas a sense of achievement in these would produce satisfaction. The dichotomy envisaged by Herzberg, therefore, seems to have

little logical force.

Herzberg, however, seems to be right in so far he classifies the two sets of elements as content and contextual factors. Herzberg's thesis becomes intelligible if we account for the performance in terms of content and context factors rather than in terms of deficiency (Hygiene ) and abundance (positive satisfiers) motives. Hygiene factors could not be effective motivators not because they are hygiene factors but because they mostly have a contextual character. Contextual factors could be defined as the set of such job elements in the situation the availability of which is not dependent upon work performance, that is, they lie outside the domain of the locus of control of the worker. Naturally, when a worker could neither increase nor decrease the quantum of returns through a variation in his inputs, it could not influence the performance either way.

The content factors in the work situation could be defined as comprising of those outcomes, the availability of which is contingent upon work performance. When so defined, we could assert that it is only the content factors which could be effective motivators in the work situation.

Under the proposed definition of the content factors, it would be wrong to assume that hygiene factors (deficiency motives) could not have a content complexion. Therein lies the failings of Herzberg's thesis .

To illustrate, the very same wages which may have a contextual character, when disbursed on a monthly or weekly basis would acquire a content character when they are disbursed on a piece rate system and in the latter case they do become effective motivators. (Wyatt, 1931).

It is naive to believe that individuals would augment their inputs only in those situations in which they could hope to promote their positive satisfaction. They would be as strongly motivated to do the same if they could alter the expectancies (probabilities) of the negative outcomes which they would like to avoid. This principle was amply demonstrated during the emergency. The work efficiency definitely increased during that period since one could protect himself against dismissal, premature retirement, or demotion through hard work only. Security which in normal times could be described as contextual, that is, it is not related with the work performance particularly in the Government Organizations, acquired a content character during emergency. The efficiency increased during those times not because positive satisfiers were introduced in the work situation, but because, security which is normally a hygiene factor had acquired a content complexion. Herzberg's thesis, therefore, needs a revision under a content contextual frame.

### C. The Rational Model:

The Rational model is based on the assumption that human beings do not behave like automatons under some inner impulsions. They rather act rationally - rationally from their own subjective standpoint. When confronted with a choice situation, they take stock of the situation by examining the pros and cons of each one of the possible alternatives available, and then arrive at a decision.

Rational models have come up against severe criticisms in the psychological literature (MC. Clelland, 1969. p.21). The main <sup>defense of the</sup> ~~argument against~~ rational models is, that human beings may not act rationally from the standpoint of others, yet they perhaps do act rationally from their own standpoint. That rationality is bounded, by his own cognitions, idiosyncratic perceptions, underlying needs, and past experiences. Individuals do understand the consequences of their acts and it is these consequences which determine their choices. The whole of ego psychology and defence mechanism are founded on this logic.

The rational model, however, does not imply that decision making in a choice situation should necessarily be carried out at the conscious plane. And, herein lies the snag of this model, which calls for a depth analysis.



The rational model was introduced for the first time by Vroom (1964) to account for the level of performance of the workers in the work situation. Since then, a number of modifications in that model have been proposed under the labels of expectancy theory (Porter & Lawler, 1968; Graen, 1967; Lawler, 1971; Mitchell, 1974; Wabha & House, 1974; Path-goal Hypothesis by Georgopoulos, Mahony & Jones, 1957, or goal-setting theory by Locke, 1968). The basic outlines of these models are given in the next following sections of this chapter. These models give a better understanding of the problem of motivation of the workers in their work situation.

#### D. Vroom's Model

A significant advancement towards an understanding of the motivational aspects of the workers in the work situations has been made by Vroom (1964) termed as Valence Expectancy theory.

Vroom very rightly argues that the behaviour of living organisms in a choice situation could not be triggered off in this or that direction simply on the basis of some isolated inner need or needs or past experience. Living organisms have a certain understanding about the anticipated consequences of their acts; and therefore, given a choice they would choose that alternative which is likely to yield them the greatest psychological satisfaction.

Vroom (1964) illustrates the above principle by assuming that the worker in his work situation can be conceived to have at least two possible alternatives; one, whether to work with reasonable commitment, and two, to work with partial commitment. In such a choice situation, an individual will weigh the pros and cons of each of the two alternatives before arriving at a decision. And, he would choose that path out of the two, which may yield better overall return. As already mentioned, Vroom's model basically relies upon the concepts of valences and expectancies.

The expectancies are the probabilities that the person sees, first of accomplishing the task goal and second of being rewarded for his achievement. They could range from 0 to 1. The valence is the strength of an individual's preference for a particular outcome and is related to his concept of utility. It refers to the salience of each of the possible outcomes following a particular choice. The valences could be either positive or negative. That is, the outcome depending upon its character could be positively or negatively satisfying.

Certain investigators adopting the basic premises of the Vroom's model have also introduced the additional concept of instrumentality. The instrumentality index according to these investigators is the individual's perception of the relationship between first level outcomes

(rewards or returns obtained) and the second level outcomes which define the underlying needs. This concept is introduced to relate the performance not simply with the overt goals sought but also with the basic underlying needs.

Vroom ties valence and expectancies by arguing that the force of an individual to exert a given amount of effort is a monotonically increasing function of the algebraic sum of the products of the valence of all first level outcomes and the strength of his expectancies that each level of performance will be attained by the amount of effort.

To state in a different way the pay-offs of different levels have been conceived to be a function of the probability of each possible outcome following that effort level and its salience. The function adopted by Vroom for the reasons of simplicity is multiplicative. This is:

$$(\text{effort}) e = \sum E_i V_i$$

Where  $E_i$  is the expectancy of the  $i$ th outcome out of the possible outcomes, and  $V_i$  is its valence. Out of the different (effort)  $e$ 's that level is likely to be adopted which is likely to yield optimal results.

In this context it may be noted that (effort),  $e$ , or  $\sum E_i V_i$  should have a maxima point. Beyond a certain level the fatigue incurred and other deprivations which may follow because of the additional units of energy spent beyond the optimal level would increase the probability of negative

outcomes (outcomes with negative valences) without adding an equivalent amount to the possible positive outcomes (outcomes having positive valences).

The main significance of Vroom's model is that it does explain as to how productivity could be high under conditions of poor job satisfaction, and could be low when the job satisfaction may be high: To illustrate, there could be a situation that even working with full commitment may yield little positive satisfaction, yet not working with commitment could have still more unpleasant consequences. In such a situation which resembles an avoidance - avoidance paradigm, the worker would choose that path which may yield comparatively less annoying results. Increased productivity under emergency could be very much explained on that basis.

Similarly, there could be situations which may provide plenty of scope to an employee to withdraw his inputs from his work obligations and invest them elsewhere without losing the benefits. In such a situation, the workers could be highly satisfied, yet they might not be giving the required amount of inputs to their organizations. This situation is exemplified by our public, or Government organizations. The employees in such organizations stand higher in respect of their job satisfactions than their counterparts in private organizations, yet their productivity remains lower for the reason that they rather do not stand to lose in terms of their overall psychological returns even by withholding or reducing their inputs in their work roles.



## E. Further Modifications:

### (1) Graen's Expectancy Theory

Since 1970's other investigators have tried to introduce their own modifications in the Vroom's model to suit their own Hypothesis. Graen (1967) describes the same model under the frame of his expectancy theory. It suggests that the degree of effort made towards achieving a certain level of performance should rather be examined in a global perspective, that is, by taking into consideration other relevant demands on the individual like the obligations to self, and the family, and other internally or externally mediating psychological factors. Under the latter set of factors, he gives a considerable importance, and may be very rightly, to one's own value system, the social pressure and the organizational climate as determinants of overt behaviour.

It will be a little beyond the scope of this text to examine Graen's analysis in detail. There can, however, be no two opinions that the individual's inputs in the work situation need to be examined in a global perspective that is by considering all other competing demands which he is also supposed to meet. This aspect of the problem is particularly emphasised in the Marginal Theory of inputs as discussed by the author in Chapter 3.

Regarding the internal and external mediators, they could be very well accommodated in the Vroom's model. Overt possible outcomes corresponding to those pressures could be included directly amongst the set of elements on the outcome side alongwith others to predict the

direction of behaviour. For example, guilt feelings associated with not working to one's best ability could figure as one of the elements on the outcome side under the Vroom's model. Since, it would have a negative valence, with high probability when one is neglecting his work, it would naturally influence the effort variable under a decision making paradigm on the input side. The same could be said about the social pressures when there may be an apprehension of losing face as in Japan, when one may not meet his role obligations with commitment. This part of his recommendation, therefore, could be very well accommodated in the Vroom's model itself.

(2) Porter and Lawler Modifications:

Porter and Lawler (1968) have further modified the Vroom's model. They give importance not only to the alternatives of outcomes but also to the perceived contingency between the efforts put in, and the rewards obtained as a consequence of those inputs. According to their theory, the individual's subjective probability that effort will lead to goal accomplishment is seen as being determined by (a) the task information specific to the particular stimulus situation under consideration, (b) the individual's fund of information concerning how he or she has done on similar tasks in the past, and (c) the individual's self-esteem, or a relatively permanent characteristic of the individual's personality that reflects the generalised perception of competence across almost all task situations. He, however, does not specify how these components might combine to determine the expectancy judgment.

In a way, Porter and Lawler have tried to analyse the components which govern the expectancies under Vroom's model. Theoretically, the conceptual analysis offered by them is certainly more sound, however, it is rather difficult to operationalize their concepts and have some intelligible understanding of the components which would define the perceived expectancies of the outcomes under the Vroom's model.

(3) A composite picture of the VIE Theory

The VIE Theory represents the dominating theme in motivational explanations of human behaviour in organizations. The different versions of the theory as outlined above differ in their emphasis and the terminology they employ, otherwise they have no fundamental differences between them. VIE Model certainly adds clarity to the underlying dynamics of motivation, even though it remains operationally complex. Human beings have thoughts and intentions which influence their behaviour. Expectancy - Valence theory takes account of those phenomena, whereas reinforcement and drive theories do not. However, as the findings suggest, it may not be necessary to enter into such sophisticated details for the purpose of prediction in actual life situations. As mentioned in section 'G' the decision making in the situation seems to take note of only those salient features which may be fairly prominent in the cognitive system of the individual. (Parker and Dyer, 1976).

F. Supplementary Models: Goal Setting Hypothesis:

The expectancy hypothesis has been a little more elaborately worded under the goal setting theory proposed by Locke (1968). It argues that the intentions to work to achieve the goals set by an individual act as primary motivators.

The basic assumption of the goal setting hypothesis is that the individual's level of performance amongst other things is a function of one's motivation to achieve certain predefined goals. The goals sought (the level of production to be achieved) under the goal setting hypothesis, would depend upon the individual's perceptions regarding the usefulness of these goals (instrumentality) to serve the basic needs (second level outcomes). Though the goal setting hypothesis emphasises the goals set by an individual, it does not deny that after all these are the basic needs whose satisfaction is ultimately sought.

The goal setting hypothesis predicts that when the mediating goals are specifically defined, they would influence the performance (inputs) much more effectively as against when they may be vaguely defined or defined in generalities. For example, asking a person to achieve 75% of the target would be much more effective in producing the desired results than merely asking him to stand first or put in his best. Goal setting Hypothesis is, therefore, fairly relevant for defining management styles. A number of studies have shown that having specific goals in view results in higher performance than in the absence of



clarity and definiteness about those goals (Ivancevich, 1977; Latham & Baldes, 1975; Terborg, 1976; White, Mitchell, Bell, 1977). This theory is not very much different from expectancy theory except in that it lays a greater emphasis upon some predefined goals. The author's contention, however, is that the choice of goals in itself would depend upon the constraints of the situation and upon the probability that they could be realistically achieved in the given situation.

This theory is also sub-sumed under Vroom's model. Under that model, the anticipated psychological gains associated with each of the possible alternatives for one would depend upon the awareness of the outcomes, his aspirations in that direction, and their subjective importance (valence) for him. Naturally, when the outcomes are more specifically and clearly defined they would affect the decision making process more prominently as against when they may be vaguely defined, and the decision maker may not be fully cognizant of the possible outcomes and their expectancies (probability of the anticipated event materialising).

G. Some relevant findings under the Rational Models:

Though the rational models have been vehemently criticised on philosophical grounds (Mc. Clelland, 1969), it has been verified through a number of findings (Galbraith and Cummings, 1967; Lawler and Porter, 1967; Hackman and Porter, 1968; Graen, 1969; Hunt & Hill, 1969; Lawler, 1973; James, Hartman, Stebbins and Jones, 1977; Harriot and Russell, 1979). The research in this area also offers

plenty of meaningful leads about the methodology to be adopted for a better estimation of the level of inputs or the direction of choice under that model. Kopelman (1976) for example, suggests that within subjects approach is a better predictor of the performance than the across subjects approach. It may be for the reason that the subjective expectancies and valences of the perceived outcomes are not independent of the personality factors. As brought out, the expectancies remain higher for the people having high self-esteem (Ivancevich, 1976), or those who interpret the situation in terms of internal locus of control (content character of the outcomes) as against those who interpret the situation in terms of an external locus of control (Lied, & Pritchard, 1976; Mitchell, Smyser & Weed, 1975; Sims, Szilagyi & Mc Kenney, 1976). The James et al study (1977) also found that expectancies were higher in a supportive organizational climate and lower where role ambiguity existed.

In respect of the possible outcomes to be taken into consideration under the decision making paradigm, the findings seem to suggest that listing of smaller number of outcomes gives better results than a large number which may be incorporated in one's attempts to be more rigorous (Parker and Dyer, 1976). This finding is in accord with the practical exigencies of the situation. Only those possible outcomes which may figure prominently in the cognitive system of the worker would affect his decision.

All these details which are not attended to, would be in a way, irrelevant in that subjective decision making exercise. This is corroborated by other finding in this area as well, for example, the prediction of the performance of engineers was better when they generated their own outcomes (Invancetti, 1976). It would certainly be better in that condition since the respondents would include only those outcomes which may occupy a prominent place in their cognitive system to influence their decisions.

There have been lots of other findings in this area, but it seems needless to refer to them for the purpose of this dissertation.

#### H. Equity Theory:

Equity theory also occupies a prominent place in the psychological literature to describe both the satisfaction and the performance of individuals in the work situation.

Equity theory originates from the exchange hypothesis as applied in economics and social relations (Homans, 1961; Jaques, 1961; Pathen, 1961). The equity theory as elaborated by Adams (1963, 1965) rests on the assumption that individuals have a fair assessment of their quantum of overall inputs in a given situation, along with the quantum of returns or the rewards which they may obtain as a consequence of those inputs. The ratio of the two measures (Returns/Inputs) would define a certain index. This index is consistently compared with the corresponding index of equivalent others.

If the focal persons' perception is that the equity lies in his favour, that is, he is getting proportionately

a larger share of rewards or returns than equivalent others, he would tend to increase his inputs to achieve parity. Conversely, if the focal person perceives that the principle of equity is adverse, he would withhold his inputs so as to reach parity. Thus the principle of equity could be indirectly an effective motivator.

The equity principle assumes that the individuals develop an <sup>internal</sup> necessary need to maintain equity in the system, and this need affects the quantum of inputs in the work situation either positively or negatively accordingly as the equity index may be in one's favour or against.

Though there is some evidence which supports the above analysis (Goodman, 1977; Adams and Rosembaum, 1962) the need to regress in the direction of equity seems to be somewhat superficial specially when the equity principle may be in one's favour. This is supported by a number of findings (Homans, 1953, Andrews, 1967; Pathen, 1961; Pritchard, Dunnette & Jorgenson, 1972; Lawler & O'Gara, 1967).

According to the author the equity principle is effective not for the reasons stated by Adams, but may be for rather different reasons. The equity principle upholds that the returns would be commensurate with inputs. Naturally, when the rewards or returns may remain contingent upon work performance, they would acquire a content character. As such, when the principle of equity is operative, individuals could augment their psychological gains by increasing their inputs. This operative part of the principle acts as an effective motivator. If the returns were to be inequitable, but they did not have a content character



it is doubtful if that inequity would influence the level of performance either way.

*observed* A flagrant violation of the equity principle is adhered every day in the real life situations. For example, a daily wage worker under a private contractor works much harder as against his counterpart in Government employment despite the equity index being obviously against him. The latter gets much more in exchange for his inputs in terms of wages, fringe benefits, leave concessions, medical facilities and the like, than the worker in private employment, yet he is not seen to increase his inputs because the returns have a contextual character.

The equity principle would certainly be a source of dissatisfaction when a person registers that he is not getting an equitable return on his inputs. But it is not necessary that this dissatisfaction may also be reflected in his work performance. The actual inputs made in the work role would depend upon many other considerations, one of them being if he could augment his overall returns through increased inputs.

In the end it may also be mentioned that there is little substance in believing that workers would necessarily increase their inputs if the inequity is in their favour (overpaid). In the first instance this inequity may not be registered, and even if registered it could be rationalised. The equity principle assumes that people have such strong in built needs to uphold the equity principle that they would feel uncomfortable if they were not conforming to it.

This is not true, it is also not upheld by experimental evidence either (Goodman & Friendman, 1971). Had this principle been true, workers in public organizations would have been more productive than in private employment.

According to the author, the principle of equity seems to be directly related with the subjective feeling of satisfactions and dissatisfactions. When perceived equity is in ones' favour, the individual would be satisfied, whereas if it is against him, he would be dissatisfied. It could act as a motivator only in those situations in which the individuals could minimize their dissatisfaction or augment their satisfaction by increasing their inputs in their work role.

I. Behaviour Modification Theories:

Whereas the other theories give a pride of the place to the internal needs, the major emphasis of the 'Behaviour Modification Theories' has been that the bases of behaviour are environmentally determined. It does not give that much of importance to the internal needs. Environment modifies behaviour through positive and negative reinforcements (operant conditioning). In an organizational setting a number of incentives like the quantum of wages, recognition, praise, sharing responsibility, delegating authority, etc. could be deployed to reinforce the desired performance. And, this would have the effect of conditioning the individual to produce the desired performance in the work situation.

This paradigm has not as yet been thoroughly investigated. Nevertheless, some of the field studies

which have used incentives to reinforce the desired performance seem to support the Behaviourists' contention (Adams and Kornar<sup>h</sup>, 1975).

In defence of the theory, it may be mentioned that the author's study seems to support the view that habit strength may be an effective motivator in its own right in the work situation. We come across persons who try to put in their best even when there may be no lure of reward, simply as a matter of habit. We may describe it in terms of an acquired need for achievement (n - Ach) or functional autonomy of Drives (Allport, 1937) or in some other form, but there is little doubt that doing the work well in itself becomes rewarding on the basis of previous learning. And this kind of habit once acquired could be sustained from further reinforcement obtained from within (self satisfaction) even when there may be no external rewards in the situation.

This hypothesis finds a further support from our everyday observations that certain people do identify with idleness and would like to give their very minimum to their work roles. I have come across tribals in Madhya Pradesh who very well register that they could very much improve their standards of living if they were to attend to their work a little more regularly. Yet, they would not do so. Once the wages are distributed, they cease reporting for work, and do so only when their next meals are <sup>not</sup> in sight.

It is doubtful if their performance could be analysed under the conventional rational or decision making models.

It finds a more intelligible explanation under the Behaviour Theory since their identification with idleness could be explained in terms of previous learning, and their poor interest in their work role could also perhaps be explained under the principles of negative reinforcement for putting in work. Having been never reinforced for doing good work, and may be on the contrary having been negatively reinforced because of attending to chores despite one's wishes or interests all along, it seems plausible that they start shunning productive activity in later life. Work becomes to them a secondary negative reinforcer. As such there seems to be a plenty of force in the Behavioural or Learning theories. May be, they need a more intensive examination.

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CHAPTER 3

MARGINAL UTILITY THEORY OF INPUTS

A. Exchange Principle:

The VIE models discussed in the previous chapter provide a rational description of the motivational components of the worker's level of performance in their professional roles. According to the author the quantum of inputs can be more satisfactorily explained on the analogy of the marginal utility theory of money as applied to economic transactions. The economic man has a certain amount of money or capital at his disposal, and at the same time he has to meet a number of his economic needs. Marginal utility theory of money assumes that he would spend (exchange) his money in a manner that his overall utility returns (the subjective satisfaction gained) from the goods or articles obtained in exchange for money are maximised. Just as the economic man is conceived to have a certain limited fund of money, at his disposal, we can also conceive that the behaving individual has a certain limited amount of energy and attention at his disposal to meet his various physical, social, and psychological needs. And just as the optimization principle operates in the economic transactions involving an exchange of money for goods, the same principle will also hold with the behaving individual in coping with his various competing

needs. Under this conceptualization, the energy and attention at one's disposal are considered at par with the amount of money an economic man has at his disposal to exchange for utility items in economic transactions.

Under the proposed frame, decision making would be governed by the principle that the last unit of energy and attention invested in different pursuits would obtain the same amount of psychological satisfaction from each, and it would also equal the amount of negative satisfaction (annoyance) incurred with the investment of the last unit of energy and attention to cope with various demands.\*

The proposed paradigm has some unique features as distinguished from the classical concept of motivation.

B. The Proposed Paradigm vis-a-vis the Motivational Theories:

The basic assumption of the Motivational theories is that the behaving organism acts under some inner compulsion. It assumes that the behaving organism has little choice in his actions. This does not seem to be true. As already mentioned, he seems to be capable of weighing the pros and cons of the possible choices available to him to arrive at a decision.

A man operates under a number of needs which have to be attended to, on a day to day, or week to week basis. None of them could be neither wholly denied nor wholly

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\* Refers to Marginal Utility theory of money and principles of optimization.

indulged into the exclusion of others. Each of them would be given only that much of attention and time that the behaving organism may maximize his overall anticipated psychological gains in the future with his present investments. In so far, the behaviour of the workers in their work role is concerned, we can assure that the workers are capable of taking a rational decision-rational from their own standpoint, under a decision making paradigm in a choice situation.

The basic weakness of the motivational theories is that they give a pride of place to the internal dynamics but fail to take into account the environmental constraints under which a behaving organism has to operate. They assume that the behaving organism acts either under the impulsion of his most prominent need at any given time, or when there may be a number of equally prominent needs, he tends to seek their resolution and acts under the impulsion of the resolved needs. These assumptions are logically unsound. It would not be possible to arrive to any kind of resolution between the competing needs without taking into consideration the environmental constraints, nor is it true that the organism may act under the impulsion of its most prominent need at any given time. When the environment may not present a possibility of the satisfaction of that need, the organism would naturally seek to make the best of what he has and postpone the gratification of that need for future, or may even repress it.

The proposed frame gives a more intelligible description of the resolution of conflicts and the choice of

a behaviour at a particular time. It does not undermine the importance or the significance of the underlying needs. Under the proposed frame, they would directly affect the saliences of the possible outcomes which may follow the choices available. And the choice would naturally fall in that direction which has the possibility of yielding maximum psychological gains (subjective psychological satisfaction).

The conflict under the proposed frame is envisaged in the plane of the decision making process, and not amongst the needs as such.

C. The Marginal Utility Frame vis-a-vis Vroom's Model:

The basic difference between the proposed frame and the Vroom's model is, that the latter examines the effort put in the job situation in isolation, whereas the former examines the work role in a global perspective. It is our common experience that despite our motivation, we may withhold our inputs in the work role to cope with some competing demands from which we could not escape. An Indian worker does not merely act to meet his job demands, he has also to invest large amounts of his energy and attention in attending to household chores, meeting familial obligations, caring and nurturing for the sick, and the like. <sup>They take</sup> He ~~takes~~ such a heavy toll of his energy and attention that he is left with little surplus to invest in his work role.

The problem in the work situation is not that the worker does not want to tire himself out, the real



difficulty is that he wants to withhold his investment in the work role so that he could invest his savings in some other pursuits which would yield him greater returns in terms of overall psychological gains, than he could hope to achieve with its investment on the work role on a day to day or week to week basis. There are studies to support the view that the pace set by the subject depends upon the total amount of work which he may set for himself. (Poffenberger, 1927). As such, expenditure of energy and attention on the work role should be viewed in a global perspective, and not in isolation, independently of other demands with which an individual has also to cope.

D. Implications of the Proposed Frame for our Management Policies:

We have to work under the assumption that the incumbent in the work situation tries to seek a satisfaction of his various needs not simply by attending to his work role obligations during the work hours, but also through other pursuits during that time which may promote his overall psychological gains. Many such pursuits in which he may fritter away his energy and attention during the work hours could be non-functional or even dysfunctional from the standpoint of the organization, yet they could be fairly meaningful and satisfying to the incumbent from his own standpoint.

Taking a cue from the proposed paradigm, we could hope to increase the productivity of our workers only when they find it profitable to invest larger proportions



roles as against their investment in other competing non-functional pursuits - non-functional from the standpoint of the organization. We could hope to do so by adopting the following practices:-

1. To make the returns flowing from workers' input more attractive. This could be done by throwing in some additional incentives in the work situation. The incentives so added should have a content complexion, that is, their availability should be contingent upon work performance.

The incentives thrown into the situation would increase the quantum of psychological satisfaction gained with the last unit of energy and attention invested in that direction, and as a consequence additional units would continue to be invested until a new balance is restored such that the marginal satisfaction gained from each of the pursuits once again becomes equal.

2. To add some negative outcomes in those pursuits which may be taking a toll of the worker's energy and attention during his work hours. This would have the effect of making the returns obtained in competing demands less attractive, and as a consequence the units of energy and attention released from competing demands would be channelised in the work situation to arrive at a new balance.

Reprimand for frittering away energy in non-functional pursuits may be necessary specially in these situations in which the employees may not stand to lose

if they were to withhold their inputs in their work role.

3. To make the outcomes, when the adequate inputs in one's work role are not furnished, less attractive. This recommendation is based on the principle that individuals like to avoid the anticipated ugly outcomes or deficiencies as much as they may like to promote their positive psychological satisfaction. In this area such steps as making the worker stay overtime, curtailment of weekly holiday, demotion without reduction in emoluments, or transfer to a less prestigious position could be fairly effective. These are the practices which are mostly adopted by the communist countries to keep their economy going (I.L.O., 1961).

4. To share those obligations of the incumbent which may be making an undue drain on his fund of energy and attention. An Indian worker has to work under the pressures of many needs which take a heavy toll of his time and energy. If he could be given some relief, he could increase his inputs in his work role. Such practices as reaching the fortnightly rations at the workers' door-step, extending nursing care to the old and infirm members of the family, working arrangements for baby sitting and schooling of young children, and provision for transport from the work to household may go a long way in reducing the fatigue of our workers and making them more fit for work.

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CHAPTER "A"

STUDY PLAN

It is generally believed, and may be very rightly, that the employees in public sector do not work with that commitment as they do in the private employment. This difference could not be attributed either to the differences in their abilities or to their psychological satisfaction. Employees in the public sector remain comparatively more satisfied and their overall proficiency and competence levels are not lower either than those of the employees in the private sector. The difference in their performances, therefore, could only be attributed to the differences in their motivations. This study, therefore, seeks to find out if there are any basic differences in the content and contextual complexions of some of the relevant factors associated with the job situation in the two kinds of organizations.

The author has been prompted to carry out this study, partly to dispel the belief that greater overall job satisfaction should necessarily result in increased productivity, and partly to demonstrate that unless our management adopts a policy of lending a content character to the benefits and rewards offered by an organization, we could not hope to raise the efficiency of our organisations, i.e. the returns made available to a worker should be directly related with the quantity and quality of his inputs. The principle of parity founded in communistic ideology though looks very rational on human considerations, it would not provide the necessary stimulation to the working force to put

in its best in the work situation.

This dissertation also seeks to dispel a widely prevalent belief that promoting positive psychological satisfaction in such factors as recognition, responsibility, promotion, etc. could alone increase organizational efficiency. Even deficiency motives could be effective motivators when the situation may be such that one could hope to minimize those felt deficiencies by investing larger amount of energy and attention in the work situation.

The deficiency motives have not been given that importance in the organizational context which they <sup>deserve</sup> desire. In this context, the author's personal belief is that the felt deficiencies could also act as primary motivators. People do not act merely to promote their positive satisfaction, they are equally motivated to reduce or minimize the anticipated irritants and deficiencies. The entire psychology of adjustment is governed by that principle.

<sup>This</sup> The dissertation seeks to verify if the efficiency of the employees in private organizations remains higher than in public organizations despite their lower morale. In one case, deploying greater energy and attention on the work role does make a difference in the anticipated outcomes, whereas in the other there is not much difference in the anticipated outcomes whether one works with or without commitment. It seeks to establish that the greater the difference between the desired outcomes following committed (hard) work, and negligent work, the more



conducive that climate should be for workers' efficiency.

The author is constrained to remark that our management policies still seem to be guided by the assumption that in case our workers are made more happy in their work roles, they would also like to give their best to the organization. This view needs a revision.

For the purpose of identifying the relevant factors, the author has employed her own instrument. It takes note of all the items listed as motivators and hygiene factors by Herzberg. The instrument employed in this study comprises of the following six sections:-

The first section (A) of the questionnaire deals with personal values. Though the personal values of the groups of employees in the private and the public sector at the group level could not be different, yet it was considered advisable to learn something about them so as to discover to what extent the expressed values of individuals may influence work performance.

The main hypothesis of this study is that the content factors alone could act as effective motivators. As such, the items in Section "B" & "C" tend to find out if there is any difference in the anticipated outcomes in the factors listed when the employees may work with reasonable commitment (hard work) and when they may be somewhat negligent of their work. The difference in the anticipated outcomes under the two conditions could give us a fair idea about the content effectiveness of the item.



Items in Section B comprise of the positive satisfiers whereas Section "C" includes the negative satisfiers or the so-called hygiene factors. The so-called hygiene factors have also been taken into consideration, since as discussed in Chapter 2, they could also be effective motivators if they were to have a content character.

It was also considered advisable to seek the opinion of the employees as to which factors may be lent a content character to improve the overall efficiency of the organization. Section "D" therefore is included to seek the opinion of the respondents as to which of the items under study would affect overall efficiency if they were to have a content character as against contextual character.

Sections "E" and "F" obtain the ranking of those factors from the respondents which are described as motivators and hygiene factors by Herzberg, in order of their relative importance. This part was included to find out the significance of the factors from the standpoint of the employees <sup>listed in</sup> out of the two <sup>earlier</sup> sections.

Section "E" included only those factors which have been described as motivators while Section "F" deals with those labelled as hygiene factors.

A preliminary survey was carried out before finalizing the instrument employed in the study.

With a view to discover if the content character of the factors considered has any bearing on their efficiency, the respondents were also rated for their work performance

by their immediate bosses in each of the two groups.

Surprisingly, as the analysis of the data in the next chapter reveals, the problem of motivation of the workers seems to be much more complex than that which is conceptualized under the existing frames.

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CHAPTER '5'

SAMPLING, DATA AND COMPUTATIONS

A. Sampling and data:

Responses of the subjects were obtained on the author's "Workers' Motivation Analysis Scale" from two different establishments, one in the private sector, and the other in the public sector. The sample selected in both the cases was incidental. One of the samples was drawn from the clerical staff working in the Bank of Baroda, Birhana Road Branch, Kanpur. It included almost all the white collared employees, working on the counters in that branch. This set has been treated to represent the employees in the public sector. The other sample was drawn randomly from amongst the white collared employees working in the J.K. Group of Industries in different offices. This set has been treated to represent the employees in the private sector.

The data on the questionnaire have been collected on a four point rating scale for the sections A and D and on a five point rating scale for the sections B and C. A more sophisticated scale was neither considered necessary nor desirable since it was discovered through a preliminary survey that the respondents felt uncomfortable when they were asked to give their responses on a seven point scale which demanded a much finer discrimination of their percepts.

Sections "E" and "F" of the questionnaire were introduced to determine the relative importance of the so-called positive satisfiers and hygiene factors from the standpoint of the respondents.

Though the ratings obtained from the respondents would not strictly confirm to the requirements of a linear interval scale they have been treated as if they do not deviate very much from that character for the purpose of a broad understanding of the general trends in the data. Since the data have not been employed either for sophisticated prediction or for defining some quantitative functional relationship between the variables, it was not considered obligatory to convert the data psychometrically into a strictly equal interval scale. This is in accord with the general practice of analysing the subjective responses like attitudes where more sophisticated measurement may be either not possible or may not be required for a rough interpretation of the findings.

B. Hypothesis and computations.

This is basically a fact finding study to identify those job elements which differ in their content character in the private and public enterprises. The basic hypothesis in this context is that there should be certain job factors which differ significantly in this character between the two kinds of organizations to account for the differences in the productivity of their employees.

The content character of the job elements has been

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operationally defined for the purpose of this study in terms of the perceived gap (difference in the ratings) between the anticipated possible outcomes following committed (hard work or adequate inputs) and non-committed (negligent or inadequate inputs) work performance. Items 6 to 15 in the questionnaire give a measure of the content character for each of the job elements listed in the questionnaire. They include both the positive satisfiers, and the so-called hygiene factors which could also have a content character if the felt deficiency could be reduced through work performance.

Besides the identification of those factors which may be distinguished in their content character in the public and private enterprises, it was also considered desirable that the opinion of the respondents may also be elicited about the effectiveness of each of the job factors to act as a motivator when it acquired a content complexion.

Sections "E" and "F" of the questionnaire require the respondents to rank some of the job factors to act as effective incentives. Section "E" presents only those factors for ranking which are labelled as positive satisfiers, and the section "F" confines itself to those factors which have been described as hygiene factors by Herzberg.

This study also obtained the ratings on the work performance of the respondents from their immediate bosses. This information was sought partly to affirm the assumption that the work performance of the employees remains better in private organizations as compared to public organizations.



This information was also needed to ensure if the content character of the job elements has any direct relationship with job performance, and if so, which factors may be relatively more important in influencing the performance outcome.

The means and variances of the content measure of the job elements included in the study for the two samples are presented in Tables 5.1A and 5.1B.

The 't' values are reproduced in Table 5.2.

Figure 1 shows the registered (Perceived) content character of Section 'B' Job <sup>Items</sup> ~~elements~~ in the two establishments.

Figure 2 shows the registered (Perceived) content character of Section 'C' Job <sup>Items</sup> ~~elements~~ in the two establishments.

Figure 3 shows the anticipated effectiveness of Section 'D' Job <sup>Items</sup> ~~elements~~ under their content complexion.

The correlations were also obtained between the items listed in Sections "A", "B", "C", and "D" of the questionnaire and the performance ratings of both the groups. The correlations are presented in Tables 5.3A and 5.3B.

The rank values of the items listed in Sections "E" and "F" of the questionnaire are presented in Tables 5.4A and 5.5A for Bank group of employees and Tables 5.4B and 5.5B for the Juggilal Kamlapat Group of employees.

The interpretation of the data and the discussion of findings are presented in the next Chapter.

**TABLE 5.1 A\***

**Means and Variances of Bank Group of Employees**

Item No. *	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Means	3.560	2.880	2.440	3.000	2.680	1.640	1.440
Variances	0.673	0.860	1.007	1.167	1.560	2.073	2.757
Item	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Means	1.840	0.400	1.640	1.160	-1.240	0.320	-0.160
Variances	2.307	2.583	2.323	3.907	4.940	7.940	5.973
Item No.	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Means	1.880	-1.200	-0.640	-0.600	1.000	-0.830	3.520
Variances	3.277	3.917	4.157	3.667	3.583	3.277	0.843

\* The actual information about the items is given on page 93 in Appendix "A".

TABLE 5.1 B

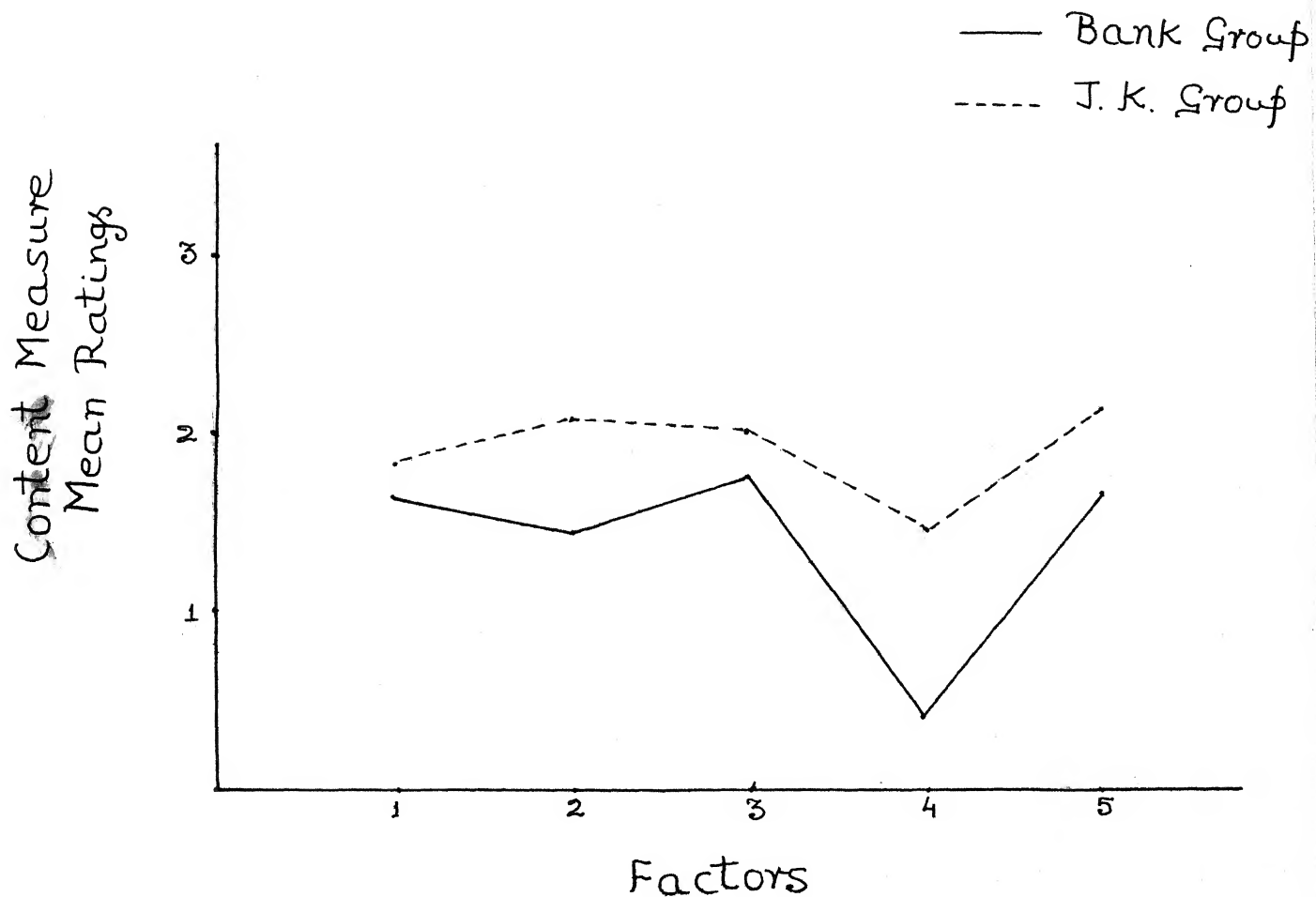
Means & Variances of the Employees of J.K. Group of Industries.

Item No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Means	3.400	3.120	2.240	3.840	3.120	1.720	2.160
Variances	1.250	1.360	1.523	0.223	1.277	2.460	3.057

Item No.	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Means	2.000	1.480	2.120	1.920	-1.240	1.200	0.320
Variances	2.833	3.343	2.777	4.493	7.273	6.250	7.643

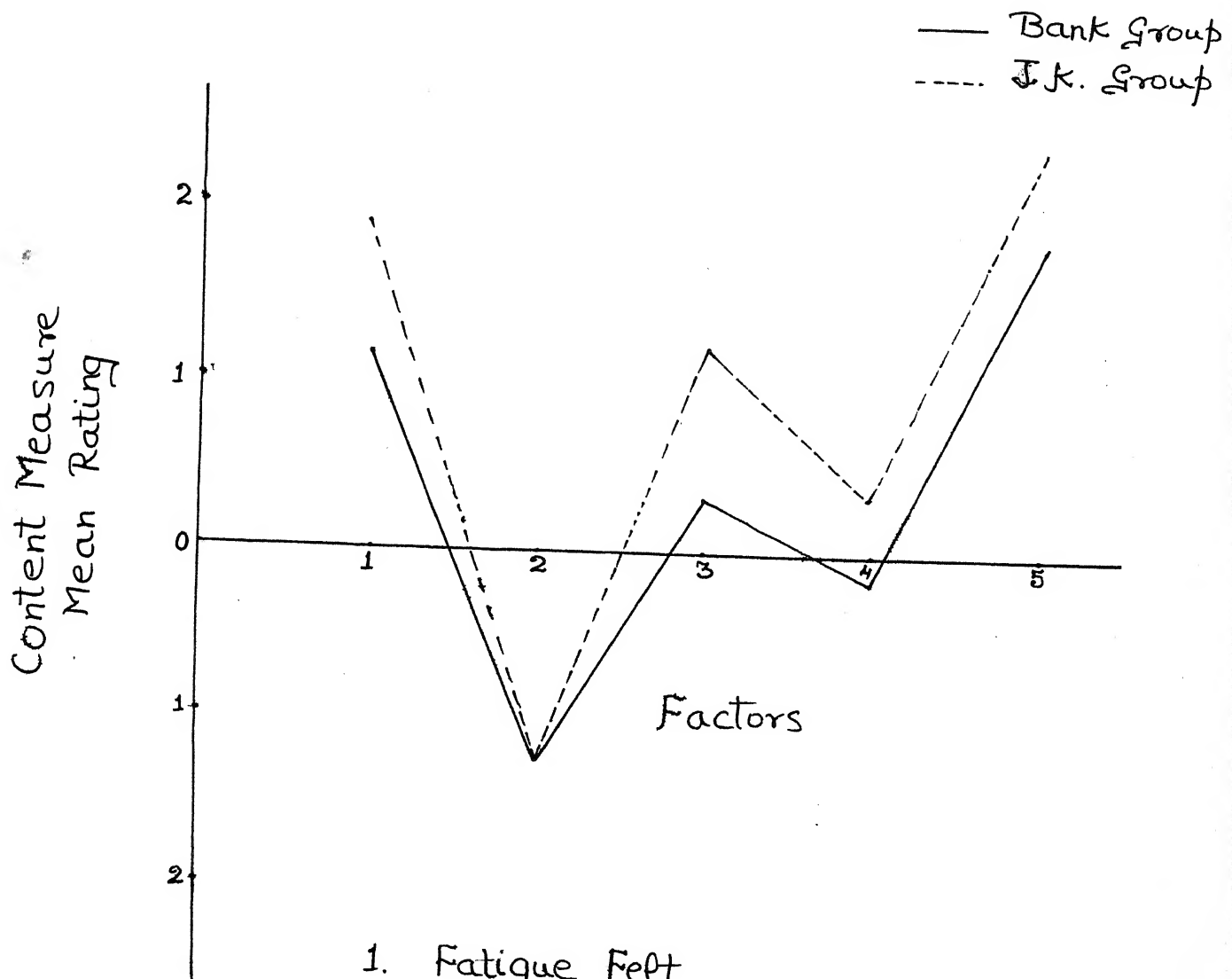
Item No.	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Means	2.440	-1.640	-1.280	-1.240	2.320	-1.840	3.720
Variances	2.757	3.490	3.960	4.773	1.060	4.390	0.960

Figure-1 Registered (Perceived) Content Character Of Section B Job Elements in the Two Establishments



1. Security on the Job.
2. Recognition from the authorities.
3. Esteem among the colleagues.
4. Availability of Fringe Benefits.
5. Opportunity for advancement.

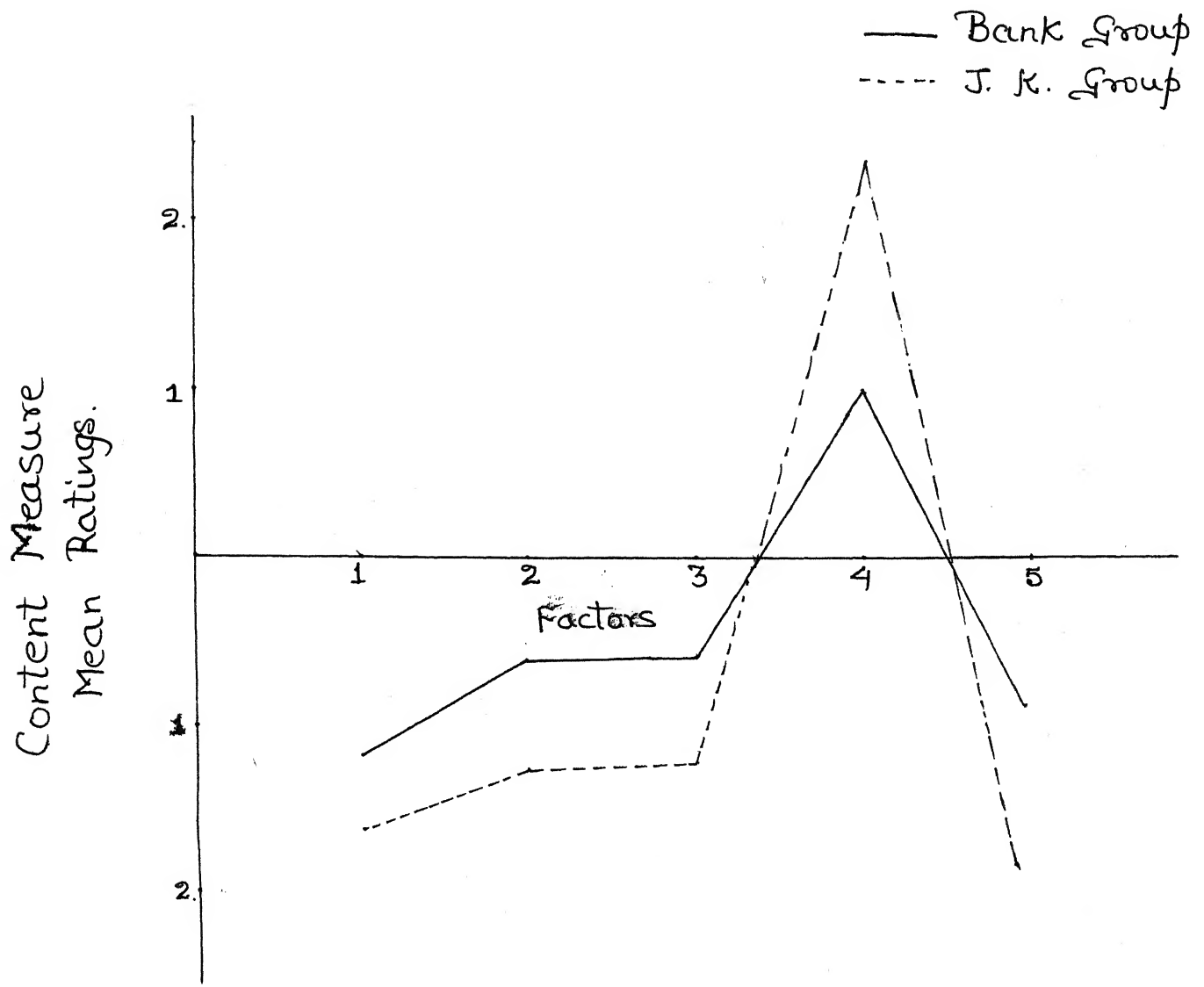
Figure- 2. Registered (Perceived) Content Charac  
Of Section C Job Elements in the  
Two Establishments.



1. Fatigue Felt
2. Time for rest, gossips & Relaxation
3. Meeting familial obligations.
4. Meeting Social obligations.
5. Opportunity for personal growth and advancement.



Figure-3. Anticipated Effectiveness of Section D  
Job Elements Under Their Content Complexity



1. Opportunity for advancement.
2. Facilities to earn overtime
3. Opportunity for participation in decision making
4. Sharing responsibility.
5. Enjoying Delegated authority.

TABLE 5.2 't' values

Item No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
't' values	0.577	-0.805	0.629	-3.562*	-1.306	-0.188	-1.493

Item No.	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
't' values	-0.352	-2.218*	-1.063	-1.319	0.000	-1.167	-0.650

Item No.	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
't' values	-1.140	0.808	1.123	1.102	-3.063*	1.734*	-0.745

\* P < .05

\*\* P < .01

TABLE 5.3A showing the correlation between the items and performance of Bank Group of Employees.

Item No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Correlations.	0.095	0.125	- 0.168	-0.252	0.151	0.210	-0.020
Item No.	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Correlations	0.032	0.079	- 0.129	-0.165	0.084	0.030	0.057
Item No.	15	16	17	18	19	20	21.
Correlations	0.290	0.220	0.007	0.090	0.216	0.136	1.000

showing the correlations between the items and performance of the employees of J.K. Group of Industries

Item No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Correlations	-0.084	-0.188	-0.011	0.079	-0.345	0.055	0.052

Item No.	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Correlations	-0.126	-0.201	-0.259	0.550 *	-0.121	-0.027	0.034

Item No.	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Correlations	0.053	-0.239	0.108	0.026	-0.279	-0.302	1.000

\*  $P < .05$   
 \*\*  $P < .01$

TABLE '5.4A'

Ranking of the factors listed in Section "F" by the Bank Group of Employees.

	<u>Ranks</u>						<u>Bank Values.</u>	
1. Lure of Promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6	A*	B**
2. Commanding of greater respect amongst ones colleagues	5	7	5	2	4	2	6.81	15.28
3. Gaining greater recognition from the authorities	5	3	4	5	4	4	.51	8.28
4. Promoting one's own personal satisfaction.	8	3	4	2	5	3	-2.31	6.16
5. Lure of earning higher emoluments	1	6	5	4	6	3	-2.57	5.90
6. Promoting security on the job	1	4	2	9	2	7	-8.47	0

Z values                      1.39   .67   .21   -.21   -.67   -1.39

\* Rank A values -  $\sum_{i=1}^n Z_i$  Values

\*\* Rank B Values - A values plus 8.47 to avoid negative values.



TABLE 5.43

Ranking of the factors listed in Section 'A' by Messrs. Jurdjalal Hanlalat Groups' Employees

	RANKS						RANK VALUES	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	X*	P**
1. Lure of Promotion	6	2	3	4	7	3	.61	8.70
2. Commanding of greater respect amongst one's colleagues	4	3	9	1	3	4	1.47	9.56
3. Gaining greater recognition from the authorities.	5	4	4	4	3	5	-.21	7.83
4. Promoting one's own personal satisfaction	5	7	2	5	3	3	4.83	12.92
5. Lure of earning higher emoluments	2	5	6	6	5	1	1.39	9.48
6. Promoting security on the job	3	4	2	4	3	9	-8.09	-

Σ Values 1.39 .67 .21 -.21 -.67 -1.39

\* Rank "A" Values -  $\sum_{i=1}^n z_i$  Values.

\*\* Rank "B" Values - "A" Values plus 8.09 to avoid negative values.

# TABLE 5.5A

Ranking of the factors listed in Section "F" by the Bank Group's Employees

	R A N K S						RANK VALUES		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	A*	B*	P**
1. Fear of Reprimand (Punishment)	4	6	1	5	8	1	.99		6.78
2. Loss of Prestige amongst colleagues	2	7	5	3	3	5	-2.07		3.72
3. Fear of Denotion	3	5	3	2	3	9	-5.79		0
4. Fear of dismissal	3	3	7	6	2	4	-.51		5.28
5. Personal dissatisfaction-Guilt Feelings	8	1	7	3	2	4	5.73		11.52
6. Losing opportunities of Promotion	5	3	2	6	7	2	.65		6.44

Values

1.39 .67 .21 -.21 -.67 -1.39

\*Rank "A" Values-  $\sum_{i=1}^n$  21 Values.

\*\*Rank "B" Values - "A" values plus 5.79 to avoid negative values.

Ranking of the factors listed in section "F" by the Employees of  
Messrs. Juggilal Kamlatpat Group of Industries

RANKS

Rank Values

	1	2	3	4	5	6	A*	B**
1. Fear of reprimand (Punishment)	3	4	2	6	7	3	-2.85	3.28
2. Loss of prestige amongst colleagues	1	8	2	4	2	8	-6.13	0
3. Fear of demotion	4	2	3	3	9	4	-4.69	1.44
4. Fear of dismissal	9	3	5	4	1	3	9.89	16.02
5. Personal dis-satisfaction and guilt feelings	2	5	10	2	5	1	3.07	9.20
6. Losing opportunities of promotion	6	3	3	6	1	6	.71	6.84

Z Values

1.39	.67	.21	-.21	-.67	-1.39
------	-----	-----	------	------	-------

$$\sum_{i=1}^n z_i \text{ Values}$$

\* Rank "A" values -

\*\* Rank "B" Values - A values plus 6.13 to avoid negative values.

CHAPTER '6'

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

A. Performance level of the two samples:

This study assumes that the inputs rendered by the employees in the private sector remain appreciably greater than those rendered by their counterparts in the public sector. It needs to be affirmed.

Theoretically, we would not be justified to compare the performance ratings of the respondents in the two groups, since they have been obtained by a different set of judges. However, we would not be wrong in assuming that each of the evaluators in the two groups would rate the performance of the employees working under him, against his own subjective criterion. This subjective criterion could not be wholly independent of the general level of the performance of the work group. (Refer to Helson's Adaptation Level Theory, Helson, 1959). Assuming that the general performance level of the employees in the private sector is likely to be higher than that in the public sector, the criterion of average performance against which an evaluation would be made, would also be higher (more <sup>stringent</sup> strong) than in the public sector. The performance ratings in the private enterprise, therefore, would be under-estimated as compared to the ratings of the employees in the public sector. There is little possibility that they could be over-estimated. As such

the performance ratings though obtained from a different set of judges could be compared without making the Type I error (rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true).

The two groups have also not been equated for their general proficiency and competence levels either. On these dimensions also, we would be very much justified in assuming that the ability and <sup>academic</sup> records of the Baroda Bank Employees would fall in their favour. This is justified on the count that the selection procedures are more stringent for the bank services than <sup>for</sup> finding an employment in the private sector. This is also substantiated by the fact that at the ministerial level, persons seek to find an entry in the private sector only when they would not find an equivalent position in a Government concern. This is all the <sup>more</sup> ~~same~~ true for the Bank services which are considered more remunerative and prestigious than a white collared job in the J.K. Group of Industries. There is, therefore, little possibility of making a type II error on this count as well.

Treating the two sets of ratings at par without compromising the findings in favour of the hypothesis, we find that the mean performance ratings of the J.K. Group of employees ( $M = 3.720$ ) are a little higher than the mean ratings of the Baroda Bank Group ( $M = 3.520$ ).

Though there is no appreciable difference between the mean performance ratings of the two groups of the employees, if we also allow for the lower proficiency and poorer competence (general ability) of the J.K. Group



their performance may be evaluated, we would be perfectly justified in inferring that the organizational climate in the private sector is comparatively more conducive or stimulating for the employees to work more diligently than in the public sector.

The author's main hypothesis had been that there should be an appreciable difference in the content character of the job elements between private and public organizations. This contention though, not as effectively substantiated as was anticipated when the content measure of the two groups are compared in isolation independently of others. There are only four job elements for which the content measure is significant at .05 level (one tailed). The 't' values are reproduced in Table 5.2. However, when we examine the whole set of the job elements we find that the content measure of the job elements remains consistently higher (9 & 1) for each of the job elements. This does substantiate the author's proposition at .02 level of significance.

B. The content character of Job Elements and its relationship with performance:-

Surprisingly the correlations of the content measure of the variables listed in the questionnaire are found to be fairly low, almost insignificant with the performance variable. Since this is true independently for both the samples, it points out that the registered (perceived) content character of the job elements has a little bearing on work performance. This has some far-reaching implications.

on which we are pinning our faith to account for the quantum of inputs rendered by an employee to his organization. May be, the answer to this problem should be sought in some other frame.

As discussed in later section<sup>the</sup>, the behaviourists' model seems to be more valid than the rational model proposed by Vroom (1964), and its modifications suggested by other investigators (Porter and Lawler, 1968; Graen, 1967), to account for the performances of individuals in their work roles.

However, certain correlations discovered between the content measure of the performance remain somewhat revealing and run contrary to expectations, which need to be discussed. (Refer to Tables 5.3A and 5.3 B).

#### C. Personal Value Factors:

Items 1 to 5 of the questionnaire employed in the study probe for the value system or the psychological feeling tone of the respondents after having done their work well. It is surprising to note that personal value considerations seem to have little bearing on work performance; the correlations between the desired value and the performance ratings are found to be fairly low for both the sets of data. May be, it is a myth to attribute committed performance to the feeling of elation experienced after hard work, or nurturance of guilt feelings when one is negligent of his work role obligations.

A very astonishing finding in this area has been that the elation experienced by an incumbent after having done

his work well is found to be negatively correlated with work performance for the Bank group of employees (corr:0252). Common sense suggests that the more elated one feels after having performed his work well, the more motivated he should be to meet his work role obligations. The findings, however, fail to support this commonsense belief.

Having been somewhat puzzled with these findings, the author paid attention to the overtly made expressions of the ministerial staff about their work routines. She discovered that those individuals who bragged or boasted about their work performance rather unduly, were usually also least efficient in their jobs. Though this observation would need a more systematic probe, it very much falls in agreement with our every day observations that a normal hard working person accepts his work as a part of normal routine and feels neither elated nor depressed after having met his work role obligations satisfactorily, whereas, those who pay attention to their work only occasionally can not help being elated and brag and boast about it since for them it is a somewhat unusual experience. It is not surprising, therefore, that the manifest feeling of elation may be negatively correlated with work performance. It could also be that such feelings may have some ego defensive function to serve for the individual to protect him against his own unconsciously registered inefficiency on the job .

The author is, however, of the opinion that the feudal value system places a premium on idleness. Those

persons who identify with idleness set their standards of work fairly low. And as such, when they surpass it, they feel unusually elated.

A private concern would not tolerate an idler. They could not survive in it. This trend, therefore, could not be reflected in the J.K. Group of employees. For that Group the correlation though low remains positive as it should be for a normal hard working group. (Corr=0.079).

There is an equally interesting outcome in the responses of the J.K. Group of employees, for this part of the questionnaire. The guilt feelings associated with having not performed the work well are found to be negatively correlated with performance ratings (corr=-0.345). This is again contrary to our expectations. The guilt feelings associated with poor work performance should logically act as an effective motivator; whereas the findings bring out that those who experience more intense guilt feelings on that count obtain poorer performance ratings. It appears that what have been reported as registered guilt feelings may be adulterated with the felt insecurity on the job with poor job performance. They perhaps feel uncomfortable for the fear that they may lose their job, and this insecurity is expressed as guilt feelings for not doing the work well in their responses.

In a public enterprise inefficiency rarely induces insecurity. In that case, the experienced guilt feelings should, therefore, reflect the true nature of one's value system. It is not surprising, therefore, that we discover a positive co-relation between this item and work performance



for that group, (Corr = 0.151).

D. Motivators:

Items 1 to 5 in Sections B and C of the questionnaire tend to determine the content character of the job elements as registered by the respondents in the two organizations. Items listed in Section 'B' comprise of the positive satisfiers and those listed in Section 'C' comprise of the so-called hygiene factors. It is interesting to note that the J.K. Group of employees attach greater importance to the content complexion of job elements than the Bank group of employees. (This fact is clearly illustrated through the figures 5.1 and 5.2).

In the above set of data out of the ten items the content measure of item 1 in Section B and Item 5 in Section C have a slightly high correlation with work performance for the Bank group of employees (corr. 0.210 & 0.290) respectively. It brings out that may be, out of the ten factors taken into consideration only these two factors alone act as effective motivators in that group. Item 1 in Section B relates to the registered security on the job, and item 5 in Section C refers to the opportunities for personal growth and advancement.

It is surprising to note that the Bank Group of employees should suffer from a certain amount of insecurity which influences their performance in the desired direction. The correlation, however, is insignificant and is, therefore, of not much importance.



However, the positive correlation for this factor very much goes against Herzberg's thesis who has listed insecurity as simply a dissatisfier, and <sup>which</sup> as a hygiene factor which could not be an effective motivator.

The findings in respect of Item 5 in Section C of the questionnaire conform to our expectations. However, the responses <sup>for this section</sup> bring out that out of other factors listed in that section the content measure of the opportunity for personal growth and advancement outside the job could <sup>(job enlargement)</sup> be considered <sup>to be an effective</sup> ~~to act alone as~~ a motivator. It is not understood why this factor should have a positive correlation with work performance. Although the respondents were told that the items listed in this section referred to outside job activities, it appears they failed to appreciate that distinction.

The pattern of relationship of the above set of items for the J.K. Group of employees with their performance is found to be very different. For that group items 4 and 5 in Section B have correlations of -0.201 and -0.259 with work performance. In Section C which deal with hygiene and outside job factors only Item 1 falls in that category. (corr = 0.550).

It is a little interesting to note that registered insecurity on the job does not seem to have any bearing on work performance for this group. This is contrary to the prevalent belief that persons in private employment feel more insecure, and that they put in more effort in their jobs so as to protect themselves against that insecurity. It could be that persons in private employment

with experience acquire much greater confidence in their ability, or it could be that neurotic employees who would feel insecure get weeded from private establishments. This character of the data needs a further probe to reach at some firm findings.

Items 4 and 5 in Section B and Item 1 in Section "C" which correlate with work performance for the J.K. Group of employees refer to content measure of the availability of fringe benefits, opportunity for advancement in the organization, and the felt fatigue. The negative correlations of items 4 and 5 with work performance are again very much against our expectations. They show that the efficient or the hard working persons perceive the organizational climate as less favourable for advancement and availability of fringe benefits as a consequence of hard work. It points out that may be, the management policies are not perceived to be fair, and those individuals who may not be efficient, perceive the organizational climate as more favourable on these two dimensions.

The most interesting finding, however, is in respect of the relationship discovered between the content measure of item 1 in Section C and work performance for the J.K. group of employees. The respondents do register that working with commitment induces fatigue, yet the registered content measure of felt fatigue is found to be positively correlated with work performance. It signifies that the felt fatigue instead of producing dampening effects on work performance as it should under

a decision making paradigm, seems to act as an effective motivator. This unexpected relationship could perhaps be best explained under the behavioural learning theory.

Behavioural theory explains the work performance in terms of previous learning or habit strength. In case a person has acquired the right kind of habits through earlier reinforcements, he would continue to produce the same kind of behaviour pattern in later situations until such time he is deconditioned through lack of further reinforcement. There seems to be plenty of force in this assertion. We do come across people who would work with commitment even in the absence of extraneous rewards. They work diligently simply as a matter of habit. At the same time we do come across individuals who identify with idleness. They would not like to work even though they fully well know that they <sup>could</sup> hope to obtain a much greater degree of satisfaction of their needs if they were to invest a little more energy and attention to their professional roles. Tribals in M.P. and Bihar, for example, would set out to work only when their next meal may not be in sight. Once they get their weekly wages or advance, they would not report for work and idle away their time, until they again reach the starvation level. Such peculiar behaviour could only be explained in terms of faulty learning in the early stages of development.

The above facts indirectly point out that the habit of working with commitment continues to be continual reinforced in private employment, which sustains

that habit. In public organization, it seems that reinforcement is missing, with the result that either that habit is not acquired or once acquired is gradually lost, ~~and~~ <sup>and</sup> the individuals like to avoid fatigue if they could in these organizations.

The findings in respect of this item are very revealing. They point out that individuals have to be trained either directly or vicariously to meet their work role obligations with commitment right from their infancy so that desired habit is established. Once that habit is established, we could be assured that they would meet their work role obligations with commitment if that habit is occasionally reinforced, and is not allowed to die out for want of positive reinforcement.

As already mentioned the feudal set up encourages identification with idleness. This could be one important factor of lack of commitment to work role obligations in developing societies. In our own social set up we do not keep our youth occupied in fruitful activities in their formative years. It is not surprising, therefore, that we are not conditioned properly (acquire the proper habit strength under Hull's terminology) to work diligently on a job which is later on reflected in <sup>the</sup> ~~their~~ work performance <sup>the</sup> ~~in their~~ professional roles. This point is more clearly illustrated when we compare the work performances of the groups of people in different regions in India itself. It could only be

-17-

attributed to the differences in the modeling strategies and the emphasis placed on hard work in the formative years.

Vroom (1964) while listing the factors which prompt persons to work has also identified the need for an optimal expenditure of energy. It seems that this need is acquired through previous experience which subsequently becomes autonomous in its own right.

We could also explain the above behaviour pattern by positing some acquired need like achievement as proposed by McClelland. The author, however, feels that it is not necessary to bring in that intermediary concept into the situation when the outcomes could be explained directly under the principle of learning.

E. Perceived Effectiveness of Certain Satisfiers to Promote Productivity:

Section "D" of the questionnaire requires the respondents to opine about the effectiveness of certain satisfiers when they are lent a content character to promote the productivity of the employees. Three most important factors listed by the Bank group of employees are found to be (i) opportunity for advancement, (ii) sharing responsibility, and (iii) enjoying delegated authority, whereas the three most highly rated factors by the J.K. Group of respondents are (i) sharing responsibility, (ii) enjoying delegated authority and (iii) opportunity for advancement.

The responses of the two groups do not materially differ. Both the groups endorse the view that in case the factors listed in section "D" were to be lent



a content character by the management, the overall efficiency would increase (Refer to figure 5.3). Both the groups favour the view that promotion, opportunity for sharing responsibility and enjoying delegated authority should be made contingent upon work performance to prompt the worker to augment <sup>his</sup> their inputs in the work situation.

As a matter of academic interest, it was also examined if there are some significant differences in the percepts or the expressed opinions of the efficient and the inefficient. <sup>about the effectiveness of the incentive system</sup> The correlations of each of the <sup>of the listed items in section D. The correlation of each of the</sup> factors particularly for the Bank group of employees are found to be fairly low. It shows that there are no significant differences in the percepts of the efficient and the inefficient in that group. Since the correlations for the measure <sup>with performance</sup> (All-contingent responses) are found to be positive, they signify that the inefficient members are somewhat more inclined toward endorsing the principle of equity than the efficient ones. It is difficult to interpret this trend. May be, the problem needs a deeper probe.

For the J.K. Group of employees the correlations of the three most important measures are found to be negative. These correlations are in the expected direction, signifying that more efficient individuals endorse the principle of equity in all matters somewhat more forcefully than the inefficient ones.



F. Respondents' percept about the effectiveness of certain job elements to act as incentives:

Sections "E" and "F" of the questionnaire elicit the opinion of the respondents about the effectiveness of certain relevant job elements. Section "E" requires a ranking of the positive satisfiers in the job situation, and the section F requires the ranking of the so-called dis-satisfiers or hygiene factors in order of their perceived relative importance. The rank values of each of the factor included in the study are reproduced in the tables (5.4A ) and (5.4B) for the satisfiers (Section "E" responses) and in the tables (5.5A) and (5.5B) for the hygiene factors (Section "F" responses).

The three most important factors identified to act as incentives from the Section "E" for bank group of employees are found to be (1) Personal satisfaction (2) Lure of promotion and (3) Respect amongst the colleagues. Similarly the most important factors listed for J.K. Group of employees are:- (1) Personal satisfaction; (2) Greater respect amongst colleagues and (3) Higher emoluments.

Amongst these factors which the individuals would like to avoid by working diligently, the three most important factors identified by the Bank group of employees are found to be (1) personal dissatisfaction, (2) fear of reprimand, and (3) losing opportunities of promotion, and the same listed by the J.K. Group of employees are found to be (1) fear of dismissal (which ranks lower (5th) amongst the Bank group of employees,

(2) personal dis-satisfaction and guilt, and (3) fear of reprimand. There are no basic differences between the responses of two groups in this respect as well. The fear of dismissal would certainly be given a top priority in a private organization where the incumbent could be asked to quit comparatively more conveniently if found inefficient on the job. This factor is bound to have a tremendous importance in a society, where another job may be difficult to find.

The significant feature of the percepts of the respondents about the effectiveness of certain job elements is that both the groups rate personal satisfaction following diligent work and dis-satisfaction following negligent work as important determiners of behaviour in the work situation. It shows that may be, the internal commitment is one of the most important factors to prompt individuals to meet their role obligations with commitment. This once again takes us back to the behaviour modification theorists. Since the necessary internal commitment could only be inculcated through proper modeling strategies, it suggests that we could very much improve the efficiency of our organizations if we could inculcate a positive interest in work amongst our workers in their formative years.

Another interesting feature of the responses for this part of the questionnaire is that whereas respect amongst colleagues with committed work is identified as an effective motivator, loss of prestige amongst

colleagues when not working with commitment has been ranked almost lowest by both the groups. It could perhaps be attributed to the changing social climate in which negligence of work has ceased to be socially undesirable or considered ego damaging.

#### G. Summary of Findings:

This study is based on the assumption that the motivation of workers as reflected in their work performance should be higher in private organizations than in public organizations. This assumption stands verified for the two samples drawn from the two different kinds of organizations.

The main hypothesis of this study has been that the content measure of job elements defined in terms of the differences in the possibilities of the desired outcome when an employee may work diligently, and when he may work indifferently, should be higher for private organizations since the content character of job elements alone could act as an effective motivator in the work situation. This hypothesis stands verified.

This study anticipated that those who perceive a greater difference in the possibilities of achieving the desired outcome between the two conditions working diligently and working indifferently - should have a higher rating in their work performance, or that there should be a fair correspondence between the registered content measures and work performance. This hypothesis is not <sup>fully</sup> ~~distinctively~~ substantiated. The correlations

between the content measure and work performance have turned out to be very low, and almost insignificant. These findings cast serious doubts on the rational models as suggested by Vroom (1964) and many others (Porter & Lawler, 1968; Braen, 1967) to account for the level of motivation in work performance.

This study has also yielded some interesting results. It is discovered that the feeling of elation entertained for doing the work well, correlates negatively with work performance. Rationally, this finding appears to be somewhat illogical. However, casual observations have shown that it is only those who are negligent of their work, when they put in a little more effort, feel somewhat unusually elated. A normal hard working man is not that exuberant after having done his work well. These findings, therefore, though unexpected seem to be very realistic.

Similarly the guilt feeling associated for having not worked well are also found to be negatively correlated with work performance for the J.K. Group of employees. It appears that this item was not interpreted properly by the respondents, what has been reported as guilt feelings seems to refer to the registered insecurity after having not met ones role obligations satisfactorily. This interpretation is justified on the grounds that fear of dismissal has been given the first rank by that group which prompts when to work diligently. Felt insecurity accompanying poor performance could have a complexion of

guilt feeling.

The most interesting finding, however, is that the content measure of felt fatigue is found to be positively correlated with work performance. Under a rational model, this factor should have a negative salience and as such this measure ought to have been negatively correlated with work performance. The data indirectly point out that fatigue is welcome to hard-working persons. It finds a rational explanation under the behavioural modifications theories which attempt to explain the quantum of efforts put in by an incumbent, in terms of habit strength acquired through previous learning.

Regarding the opinionated items, the respondents felt that personal satisfaction derived by doing ones' work well, and the dis-satisfaction felt by not doing it well act as effective motivators. This factor, in fact, refers to internal commitment.

Amongst the external variables opportunity for promotion and the respect earned amongst the colleagues have been identified as effective motivators by the respondents in both the groups.

In substance, this study brings out that internal commitment is the most effective motivator in the work situation. The content character of job elements would also affect work performance, but their contribution seems to be much smaller than is commonly believed.



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CHAPTER '2'

IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS FOR THE MANAGEMENT POLICIES

The employees by and large seem to subscribe to the principle that the rewards or returns made available to an incumbent should be contingent upon work performance, or that they hold that the equity principle should be followed not simply in determining the wages but it should be adhered to in respect of other benefits as well, to promote the productivity of the work force. They endorse that unless our management policies lend a content complexion to the job elements, it is doubtful if we could hope to get greater amount of inputs from the employees in their work roles. This principle casts serious doubts upon the policy of non-linking of wages, bonus, and other benefits with productivity.

This study also bears out that the ~~deberrents~~<sup>deberrents</sup> could be as effective motivators as the positive satisfiers. There seems to be nothing wrong to make the consequences of being neglectful of one's role obligations sufficiently unpleasant so as to prompt the worker to avoid these consequences through more committed work. The increased efficiency under emergency fully bears it out.

Internal commitment seems to be the most effective motivator at the individual level. The management policies, therefore, should be such that habit strength is continually reinforced. This is only possible when the job elements have a content complexion. In the absence of adequate reinforcement, deconditioning could take place and the work

performance could slump to a lower level. Apart from other factors, lack of provision of reinforcement for working with commitment in public organizations seems to be another important factor which adversely affects the productivity of their employees in the long run. Private enterprises are better placed in this respect.

Examining the problem in a larger context, it appears that we could not hope to improve the efficiency of our organizations simply through external control and lending a content character to the job elements. We should also be careful to build up proper internal commitment in the formative years of our work force. This could be our best <sup>bet</sup> hit to ensure that our employees would be reasonably diligent and productive. We could build up this internal commitment only if we were to keep our children busy in fruitful activities in their formative years so that they may learn to derive an interest in their work. Once that habit is acquired, it shall only need to be sustained through occasional reinforcement.

Examining our modeling strategies from that standpoint, we find that at no stage do we try to keep our children busy in fruitful activities in which they may be interested to acquire a habit of working diligently. This seems to be the main factor of the backwardness of certain States of India. Those States which have not as yet been able to get out of the feudalistic pattern unwillingly tend to encourage an identification with idleness, with the result that in many instances the workers learn to shirk work,

rather than like it. They could be prompted to render the necessary inputs only under fear, and not otherwise.

There seems to be lots of force in the above analysis. It is only on this basis that we can account for the difference in motivation of workers having a different socio-cultural background. It is on that ground alone we could explain the spirit of ~~de~~-nothing-ness amongst some backward tribes in our society.

The problem of motivation of workers, therefore, seems to be more a problem of our faulty modeling strategies and an unimaginative socialization process during the formative years.

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EPILOGUE: THE INDIAN WORKER AND HIS EFFICIENCY

We are usually in the habit of condemning our Indian workers and if an opinion poll were to be taken, we will rate them very low for their efficiency as compared to workers in other developed societies. It is likely to be misconstrued as if there is something palpably wrong with our people. This percept, therefore, needs to be examined a little more rationally. It would make us appreciate <sup>that</sup> the failing, if any does not lie with our people. It lies with our system.

In the first instance, when making a comparative evaluation of the efficiency of our people, we should logically examine it in terms of the input-output ratio : On the input side of our people, we should take note of their unhealthy, insanitary, crowded living conditions, poor caloric intake, and little opportunity for recreation and relaxation. When we take note of these adverse conditions, and also give a due allowance to the time and energy spent in attending to household chores, meeting social and other familial obligations which could not be avoided, and the ordeal of reaching the work place and getting back from that place, ~~we may discover that our people are not as~~ ~~on the output side, our image about our people~~ ~~unfavourable as they are imagined to be~~ our image about our people would change. In big cities a worker usually starts early in the morning to reach his place of work and returns home late in the night. His total hours of working, therefore,

extend much beyond the eight hours' limit. On top of it, we should also reckon that he has to work under the conditions of appalling insecurity with no provisions of insurance against sickness, old age or unemployment, and under very unhealthy conditions. It is in India alone that a daily wage worker, *rehriwala*, a petty shop-keeper starts work at a very early age and continues doing so without a break upto the end of his life without rest, without recreation and sometimes even without a holiday much beyond his capacity. If we were to register all this, may be, we will not accuse them of inefficiency and would rather have a positive image of them.

In the above context, we should also note that the very same lazy Indians whom we condemn, when they get a chance to migrate outside the country, they turn out to be fairly successful, so much so, that they have <sup>posed</sup> ~~posited~~ a threat to the natives of each of the migrant countries to which they have migrated, be it South East Asia, Middle East, or the Far-East. In the recent years they are also a threat to the local population of United Kingdom, Germany, and other Commonwealth Countries.

This problem also needs to be examined from the motivational stand-point. A relevant question could be raised as to <sup>why</sup> ~~when~~ a worker in developed societies may be more committed to his work role than his counterpart in the Indian scene.

In the capitalist societies, rewards and returns are basically determined on the principle of equity. If an



employee were to register that he is not getting equitable returns for his inputs, he would quit the job and could find another where he feels he is justly rewarded. In the competitive societies where the individuals have a much greater facility to change their jobs there is almost a built in system to keep the principle of equity operative. The operation of this principle acts as an effective motivator to prompt the people to augment their inputs so that they could hope to get larger and better returns.

Unfortunately, in our system the principle of equity is not that strictly adhered to. Working with commitment does not necessarily ensure that it would be followed by higher or better returns, nor does not working with commitment is necessarily accompanied by any poorer return. Equity principle is not being effectively translated into practice on the Indian scene to prompt the worker to work with greater commitment.

The motivating factor amongst the communist countries is altogether different. They make the possible alternatives of not meeting one's role obligations so unpleasant that a person would like to avoid that possibility. Though the worker may not be positively motivated to work with commitment in these societies, his motivation to avoid the unhappy consequences following neglect of work achieves the same results, indirectly. On the Indian scene, this negative factor which could motivate people, could not be put into practice either, people would revolt against it. Perhaps the Japanese model presents a good example, where people work with commitment



- 77 -

neither under fear nor under the lure of additional rewards. They achieve these results through social <sup>conditions</sup> ~~sanctions~~ and early modeling strategies. If a Japanese were not to meet his role obligations with commitment, he would lose face amongst his colleagues, and loss of face is considered the worst form of ignominy which he could suffer from. We, therefore, find that as compared to other societies, there are hardly any effective motivators on the Indian scene which would prompt our individuals to work with commitment.

Since we could not <sup>if the problem is available to us</sup> adopt the hard ways of the totalitarian regimes, the only solution is to make our people register that augmenting of their inputs would bring them larger dividends. Still more important is the need to re-examine our modeling strategies so that they would emphasise the dignity of work and develop an internal commitment to do it well through proper reinforcement in the formative years of our people. We have also to see that through our right kind of modeling strategies we are able to build up a sufficiently strong public opinion which would approve of honest and committed performance, and would be equally condemnatory <sup>expressed sincerely</sup> of not meeting one's role obligations with commitment.

If we continue to be neglectful of our modeling strategies and do nothing to ensure that committed work would win praise and appreciation, and neglect of one's work reproof and social condemnation, the author is afraid, we could not hope to bring in a radical change in the work performance (commitment to the role obligations) of our people.

The problem of commitment of our people to their work role obligations has to be tackled basically at the social level rather than at the organizational level. The organization could do very little once the commitment to work has not been effectively implanted in its workers during their formative years.

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APPENDIX "A"

INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY, KANPUR

WORKERS MOTIVATION ANALYSIS SCALE

Date:

BIO DATA:

Name :

Age :

Organization :

Job (Position) :

Length of Service :

Date of last Promotion:

Present Emoluments :  
(Gross Pay/Wages)

SECTION 'A'

1. The day on which I have done my full day's work, I feel

Very Happy      Fairly Happy      Slightly Happy      Feel the same

2. The day I am not able to do my full day's work, I feel

Very Unhappy      Fairly Unhappy      Slightly Unhappy      Feel the Same.

3. The day on which I have to work almost without any respite, I feel:

Really bad      Fairly bad      Somewhat bad      Remain indifferent

4. When I work well, I feel

Highly Elated      Fairly Elated      Slightly Elated      Remain Indifferent.

5. When I do not work well, I have a sense of

Intense guilt feelings      Moderate guilt feelings      Slight guilt feelings      Remain indifferent

SECTION "B"

BRING out the relative standing of the hard working and negligent (with poor commitment to work role) employees in your organization with respect to each of the following factors by placing a tick (✓) mark in the appropriate column (for the two categories of employees) under each heads.

<u>Fairly</u> <u>High</u>	<u>Moderately</u> <u>High</u>	<u>No</u> <u>difference</u>	<u>Moderate-</u> <u>Low</u>	<u>Fairly</u> <u>Low</u>
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1. Security on the job.

a. Hard-working

b. Negligent

2. Recognition from the authorities

a. Hard-working

b. Negligent

3. Esteem amongst the colleagues.

a. Hard-working

b. Negligent.

4. Availability of fringe benefits.

a. Hard-working

b. Negligent.

5. Opportunity for advancement.

a. Hard-working

b. Negligent.



SECTION 'C'

<u>Fairly</u> <u>High.</u>	<u>Moderately</u> <u>High</u>	<u>No</u> <u>Difference</u>	<u>Moderately</u> <u>Low</u>	<u>Fairly</u> <u>Low.</u>
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1. Fatigue felt
  - a. Hard working
  - b. Negligent.
2. Time for personal rest, gossips & relaxation.
  - a. Hard-working
  - b. Negligent
3. Meeting obligations to family members, like attending to household duties and needs of the family members
  - a. Hard-working
  - b. Negligent
4. Meeting social obligations like attending to social functions.
  - a. Hard-working
  - b. Negligent.
5. Opportunity for personal growth and advancement.
  - a. Hard-working
  - b. Negligent.

SECTION 'D'

Examine each one of the following benefits, and state to what extent it would effect the commitment of the employees.

- (i) When the benefits is made available to all the employees regardless the quality of their work performance, and
- (ii) When its availability is made contingent upon the quality of work performance and is thus restricted to efficient employees only (contingent policy).

Greadly  
Improve

Fairly  
Improve

Slightly  
Improve

Make no  
difference

1. Opportunity  
for advancement  
(promotion etc.)

a. All

b. Contingent

2. Facilities to  
earn overtime

a. All

b. Contingent

3. Opportunity  
for participation  
in decision  
making.

a. All

b. Contingent

4. Sharing  
responsibility

a. All

b. Contingent.

5. Enjoying  
delegated  
authority.

a. All

b. Contingent

SECTION "E"

Rank the factors listed in accordance with their importance (significance) in prompting the employees to work with greater commitment in their vocational roles, in your organization. The factor considered most effective be given the rank one, and rest of the factors may be ranked in the descending order of their effectiveness.

1. Lure of Promotion
2. Commanding of greater respect amongst ones colleagues.
3. Gaining greater recognition from the authorities.
4. Promoting one's own personal satisfaction.
5. Lure of earning higher emoluments.
6. Promoting security on the job.

1. ....
2. ....
3. ....
4. ....
5. ....
6. ....

Section (F)

Also rank the following factors as above which prompt the employees not to neglect his work in your organization.

1. Fear of repriman (Punishment) 1.....
2. Loss of prestige amongst colleagues. 2.....
3. Fear of demotion 3.....
4. Fear of dismissal 4.....
5. Personal dissatisfaction and guilt feelings. 5.....
6. Losing Opportunities of promotion 6.....